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ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT, MOTIVATION, AND GOAL ACHIEVEMENT:
A CROSS-CULTURAL STUDY

A Thesis

Presented to

The Faculty of the Department of Psychology

San Jose State University

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Science

By

Sara Morris

December 2003

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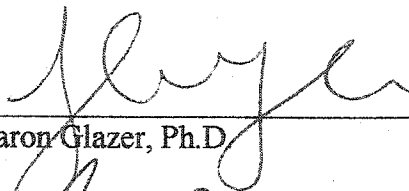
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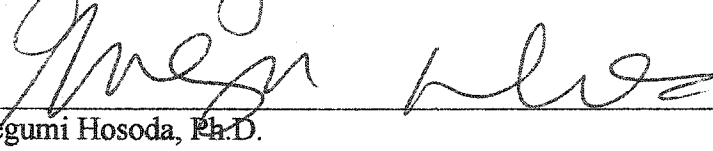
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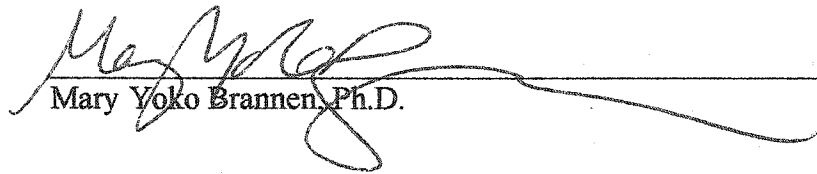
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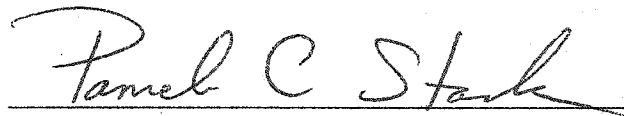


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ABSTRACT

ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT, MOTIVATION, AND GOAL ACHIEVEMENT: A CROSS-CULTURAL STUDY

By Sara Morris

The present study examined the relationships among organizational support, motivation, and goal achievement across cultures. Archival data were obtained from a multinational steel firm. Four cultural groups were devised based on Schwartz's (1994) theory of culture values, including autonomous ($N = 11,837$), conservative ($N = 3,850$), hierarchy/mastery ($N = 11,300$), and egalitarianism/harmony ($N = 3,037$) cultures. Results showed that correlations among the study variables were significant and positive in each culture. Second, people in conservative cultures scored higher on motivation than people in autonomous cultures, and people in hierarchy/mastery cultures scored higher on organizational support but lower on goal achievement than people in egalitarian/harmony cultures. Third, motivation mediated the relationship between organizational support and goal achievement in each culture. Finally, culture moderated the effects of organizational support and motivation on goal achievement, such that the relationships between organizational support and goal achievement, as well as motivation and goal achievement, were more positive in autonomous cultures than in conservative cultures, even though the general mean scores on goal achievement were higher in conservative cultures.

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Introduction

Studies on the relationships among motivation, organizational support, and goal achievement are infrequent. Moreover, psychological theories on each of these topics are mostly western-oriented (Gomez-Mejia & Palich, 1997), and few are cross-cultural in design. Research from the USA suggests that organizational support and motivation positively influence goal achievement as researchers (e.g., Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, Rhoades, 2001; Latham, Erez, & Locke, 1988; Latham & Steele, 1983; Lee, Bobko, Earley, & Locke, 1991; Locke, 2001; Lynch, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 1999; Shore & Tetrick, 1991; Steel, 2001) have found that both support and motivation relate to performance or goal achievement.

From a US perspective, if employees want the company to support them and the company gives employees support, goals may likely be achieved (Eisenberger et al., 2001). However, it is not known to what extent the relationships among these variables are similar across different cultures. Therefore, in the present study, correlations among these variables will be compared across four cultures (autonomy, conservatism, hierarchy/mastery, and egalitarianism/harmony), which are comprised of 20 nations (Argentina, Australia, Brazil, Canada, China, Czech Republic, France, India, Italy, Japan, Mexico, Netherlands, Poland, Romania, Singapore, South Africa, Spain, Turkey, UK, and US). In addition, the mean scores of the study variables were compared between the two cultural dimensions and the relationship between organizational support and goal achievement as mediated by motivation was assessed in each culture. Finally, the extent

to which more variance was accounted for in goal achievement by the interaction of organizational support and culture, as well as motivation and culture was examined.

As suggested by numerous researchers (e.g., Beehr & Glazer, 2001; Erez, 1994; Erez & Earley, 1987; 1997; Hofstede, 1984; Schwartz, 1992), culture is associated with individual level behaviors, attitudes, and thoughts (Berry, 1989). This suggests that a cultural context matters in understanding people's attitudes and behaviors, and that this is also true in understanding organizational behaviors (Glazer, 2002). Culture is comprised of shared meanings, norms, attitudes, beliefs, and values (Hofstede, 1984). People in a given nation are often thought to share a similar culture. Therefore, in this study, national culture will be used to explain similarities and differences in the relationships among organizational support, motivation, and goal achievement.

Through analyses of the above relationships across cultures, the extent to which these cultural value types are similar to, or different from, each other, on organizational support, motivation and goal achievement may be revealed. The fact that differences were found in previous studies (Hofstede, 1984 & Schwartz, 1999) suggests that cultural values might moderate the relationship between organizational support and motivation with goal achievement. This study is designed to examine how culture, as assessed by two sets of cultural dimensions (i.e., four cultural values), moderates the relationships between both organizational support and motivation with goal achievement. Cultural values are presumed to affect attitudes and behaviors of a society's members, which in turn would relate to the perceived support one receives from his or her organization and one's motivation to achieve goals.

Hofstede (1984) emphasized how culture is related to the way people think about work. He wrote that people in the Western world incorporate individualistic values (e.g., self-management and independence) into their lifestyles, whereas, people in the Eastern world prefer collectivistic or group-oriented values, (e.g., team work and social solidarity). He also distinguished between cultures emphasizing power distance (status-oriented) and those that do not, as well as those emphasizing masculinity (achievement-oriented) and those emphasizing femininity (relationship oriented). Generally, European cultures emphasize low power distance and femininity, and Asian cultures tend to emphasize high power distance. Instead of using Hofstede's values, however, Schwartz's (1994b; 1999) culture values were utilized because they included more crossover with the nations surveyed in this study, and Schwartz's cultural values are based on more recent findings.

Schwartz's (1999) cultural values consist of autonomy (emphasizing the pursuit of individually-based interests), conservatism (emphasizing security, tradition, and order), hierarchy (focusing on status and social distance), mastery (focusing on power and competition), egalitarianism (emphasizing equality), and harmony (endorsing maintenance of balance or status quo among people). Hofstede's notion of individualism and collectivism relates to Schwartz's cultural values of autonomy and conservatism, respectively. Power distance and masculinity-femininity relate to Schwartz's cultural dimension of hierarchy versus egalitarianism and mastery versus harmony, respectively.

Culture is expected to influence organizational support, motivation, and goal achievement. First, the interpretation of what is supportive to an employee may be

perceived differently depending on the culture one is in (Yoon & Lim, 1999). The fulfillment or challenge of a job relates to one's culture (Lowe, Delbridge, & Oliver, 1997). Beehr and Glazer (2001) conjectured that people in autonomous cultures would accept emotional support from a supervisor more than people in conservative cultures because individual emotional support can disturb group harmony (e.g., favoritism). In fact, Glazer and Bell (2002) found that people in Anglo and West European cultures reported higher levels of supervisor emotional support than Asian cultures.

Second, motivation is expected to differ across cultures (Harvey, Carter, & Mudimu, 2000). McClelland (1961) collected data on 21 children's stories from 41 countries, and scored them on the extent to which the stories endorsed a need for achievement motivation. He found that the dominant motives in a culture, as seen through the children's books, accounted for differences in people's behaviors across societies. For example, McClelland noted that the greater a country's need for achievement motive, the greater the country's growth in electric power production per capita. Third, goal achievement may be viewed differently across nations (Li, Lam, & Qian, 2001). For example, goals in China may revolve around the benefit of the group, whereas, goals in the USA may only benefit one person (Latham et al., 1988).

Significance of Study

In order to manage people and resources appropriately in different cultural contexts, one must understand how culture is related to organizational behavior. For example, studying the relationships among organizational support, motivation, and goal achievement across cultures provides one more avenue for learning what strategies for

workplace change might be most appropriate in achieving goals in different cultural settings. Some cross-cultural research or theory is available on organizational support (e.g., Beehr & Glazer, 2001; Eisenberger et al, 2001; Shore & Tetrick, 1991), motivation (e.g., Erez, 1994; Harvey et al., 2000; Silverthorne, 1992; Yamauchi, Lynn, & Rendell, 1994), and goal achievement (e.g., Aarts, Dijksterhuis, & Cees, 1999; Butler, 1995; Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996; Erez & Earley, 1987) independently. The present study synthesizes these constructs into research models (see Figures 1 to 3) and examines the relationships among them across cultures.

Summary

The present study is designed to first examine the correlations between organizational support, motivation, and goal achievement across four cultures that include various combinations of twenty countries (i.e., Argentina, Australia, Brazil, Canada, China, Czech, France, India, Italy, Japan, Mexico, Netherlands, Poland, Singapore, Turkey, Romania, Spain, South Africa, UK, USA). Second, average scores on each study variable are compared across two cultural dimensions. Third, the relationships between organizational support and goal achievement, as mediated by motivation are examined in each culture. Fourth, goal achievement is regressed on the interaction between each of two cultural dimensions (autonomy vs. conservatism and hierarchy/mastery vs. egalitarianism/harmony) with organizational support and with motivation. In the following section, cultural values, organizational support, motivation, and goal achievement are reviewed, as well as the relationships among them.

Literature Review

Culture

The present section discusses the definition of culture, importance of studying cultural values, and nations that have been found to endorse such cultural values. Culture is defined as a “set of mental programs that control individuals’ responses in a given context” (Hofstede, 1984, p. 21). Culture is important to take into consideration when conducting psychological studies (Beehr & Glazer, 2001), because it is assumed to predict people’s beliefs and actions. Normative behaviors are upheld because culture has a cognitive foundation (Hofstede, 1984). The mental representations of people within a culture make the foundation of that culture’s social system. These mental representations are acquired through a socialization process that legitimizes a common ground of “shared meaning systems” (Hofstede, 1984, p. 21). For example, people from collectivistic societies uphold traditional educational and agricultural systems in order to maintain a group social identity, whereas people from individualistic societies uphold identities distinct from any group (Hofstede, 1984).

Similarly, people in conservative cultures endorse maintaining status quo and people in autonomous cultures endorse change and distinction (Schwartz 1994b; 1999). Schwartz depicted cultural values as the foundation for social norms. These norms dictate how people behave in a situation. This includes the way people function in the larger social, economic systems. For example, people belonging to a culture valuing group harmony (e.g., cooperation) would more likely have workplaces open to cooperation than societies that endorse mastery (e.g., competition).

Bandura and Cervone (1986) investigated how people see the world as a result of the culture they live in. They asserted that the shared environment influences human perceptions, which leads to a collective perspective. This collectivity can be seen in nationality, where a specific set of values, such as autonomy versus conservatism or egalitarianism versus hierarchy (Schwartz, 1999), influences people's functioning and performance. Thus, national boundaries can define a culture (House, Wright, & Aditya, 1997). The citizens of a nation tend to share a set of cultural values.

Culture values are a foundation for social standards that are expected and effective in creating social order (Harvey et. al, 2000; Milhouse, 1996; Rokeach, 1973). For example, Glazer and Bell (2002), based on Beehr and Glazer's (2001) work suggested that the values of hierarchy, mastery, and conservatism were related to the low scores on perceived supervisor support in Asian cultures, whereas an emphasis on autonomy was related to Anglos' and Western Europeans' higher scores on perceived supervisor support.

In order to possibly provide explanation for similarities and differences in the relationships between organizational support, motivation, and goal achievement, twenty nations will be categorized into four cultures based on Schwartz's (1994b; 1999) cultural values. Schwartz (1999) found seven cultural values divided into three dichotomous dimensions, by which nations can be characterized. The three culture dimensions include autonomy (affective and intellectual) versus conservatism, mastery versus harmony, and hierarchy versus egalitarianism. Below, each dimension is described.

Autonomy versus conservatism. Autonomous cultures endorse the pursuit of individual interests or desires (Schwartz, 1994b; 1999). The autonomy value is further broken into two categories. First, affective autonomy is characterized by a varied, exciting life that provides pleasure and enjoyment. Schwartz (1994b; 1999) has found that of the countries in the present study, Australia, Canada, France, Japan, Netherlands, Spain, UK, and USA, are high on affective autonomy. Second, intellectual autonomy is characterized by broad-minded curiosity and creativity. According to Schwartz, France, Italy, Netherlands, and Spain are high on intellectual autonomy. In general, autonomous cultures are the opposite of conservative cultures, which emphasize social order and obedience. According to Schwartz (1994b; 1999), Argentina, Brazil, China, Czech Republic, India, Mexico, Poland, Romania, Singapore, and Turkey are rated high on conservatism.

Hierarchy versus egalitarianism. Cultures that endorse social justice, loyalty, responsibility, and a concern for the welfare of others in close interactions value egalitarian commitment (Schwartz, 1994b). According to Schwartz, egalitarian cultures are interested in equality and have a universalist, or benevolent concern for others. Egalitarian commitment is negatively correlated with mastery and hierarchy, and is positively correlated with autonomy. Social power, prestige, authority, influence, and wealth characterize the value of hierarchy (Schwartz, 1994b). Australia, Czech Republic, France, Italy, Netherlands, Poland, Spain, Turkey, and UK value egalitarianism, whereas Canada, China, India, Japan, Singapore, South Africa, and USA value hierarchy.

Mastery versus harmony. Mastery-oriented cultures emphasize success, ambition, choosing one's own goals, capability, and independence (Schwartz, 1999). This independence differs from autonomy in that autonomous independence focuses on open-minded thought and flexibility, and mastery focuses on actively pursuing control over others and people. Schwartz (1994b) and Yamauchi et al. (1994) found that China, Japan, Singapore, and the USA endorse mastery values. These national cultures are proactively social and desire to master the social environment. Australia, Czech Republic, France, Italy, Netherlands, Poland, Spain, Turkey, and UK value harmony (Schwartz, 1994b).

Harmony is related to egalitarian commitment in that both are concerned with social justice, helpfulness, and peace (Schwartz, 1994b). Harmony and egalitarianism are in opposition to the value of mastery. People who endorse the cultural value of harmony emphasize unity between nature and society. This value type is in opposition to cultural values that endorse actively changing the world.

Figure 4 summarizes the placement of countries in the four culture categories. It is important to note that although there are 20 countries, not each of the countries can be categorized within each cultural dimension. For example, Argentina did not fit in either mastery/hierarchy or in harmony/egalitarianism. According to Schwartz (1999), Argentina is quite central on this dimension.

Organizational Support

The following section explores perceived versus received support, types, and sources of social support to understand organizational support. Social support is the

positive effect that social resources or social networks create for an individual (Cohen & Wills, 1985). Steel (2001) states that most firms provide a supportive environment for their employees because they know that if they do not, the staff will suffer, and so will performance. The benefits of social support include well-being and stability within one's work roles (Cohen & Wills, 1985). Social support is not only determined by the source of support (e.g., the organization, co-workers, supervisors, family, and friends), but also the type of support, such as emotional, instrumental, informational, or esteem support (Bishop, Scott, & Burroughs, 2000).

Types of support. Emotional support is a functional type of support, occurring when people support one another to create positive feelings in the workplace. Instrumental support occurs when one helps another to solve problems or complete a task (Beehr & Glazer, 2001). Examples of instrumental or tangible support include providing physical support, such as equipment to perform a job. Instrumental resources include mental, physical, informational, and financial aspects of resources (Beehr & Glazer, 2001). For example, one can provide another with mental support through encouraging the support recipient to complete a task. Physical support in the workplace can be provided through access to office equipment. Financial support in the workplace can be provided through programs, such as bonuses or merit-based awards. Informational support in the workplace can be given through sharing knowledge during training. An example of informational support is when one teaches another how to perform a certain task (Beehr & Glazer, 2001).

Cohen and Wills (1985) found that employees benefit from social support because social networks offer people positive experiences. When people are supported, they are less inclined to perceive stress, thereby facilitating coping with a negative situation (Beehr & Glazer, 2001). Emotional and instrumental support can be helpful in reducing stress as long as the support is properly focused on the situation and the person involved (Beehr & Glazer, 2001). The matching hypothesis as it relates to culture states that social support will be functional if it is submersed in a culture that is accepting of that type of support (Beehr & Glazer, 2001). This may suggest that support will positively relate to goal achievement in cultures that endorse support as a means for achieving goals, but not necessarily in cultures that do not endorse it.

The present study examines the relationships between goal achievement and organizational support across cultures. In this study, a general concept of an organization's support is assessed in terms of instrumental and emotional support. It is believed that organizational goals will be more attainable if the support given fits the cultural context (Beehr & Glazer, 2001). For example, when people living in cultures that endorse organizational support through provision of resources perceive provision of resources as a type of support, the organization's goals will likely be achieved. Yoon and Lim (1999) conjectured that national norms relate to organizational support in the workplace, and varying levels of importance of support will differentially relate to goal achievement levels across national cultures.

Perceived versus received organizational support. Perceiving support and receiving support are two different concepts. Perceived support can lead to the view that

help is available if an employee needs help and may be attained if requested. In received support, people receive support without requesting it (Eisenberger et. al., 2001). In addition to having the right source of support, it is important that the person receiving support is willing to accept help, or support will not be received (Eisenberger et. al., 2001). In this study organizational support is operationally defined as perceived supportive work processes, including training, teamwork, and the organization of communication procedures.

Sources of support. A source of support is the entity from which support may be derived. Bishop et al. (2000) found that employees need support from different sources so they are not dependent on one source for support. Support can originate from co-workers, supervisors, peers, and family (Beehr & Glazer, 2001; Cohen & Wills, 1985; Eisenberger et al., 2001). According to Steel (2001), if staff feel unsupported by their colleagues, negative feelings will harbor within the individual. Steel conjectures that supervisor support might alleviate worker strain that results from organizational and psychological factors. Supervisor emotional support involves improving relationships, managing emotions, and changing perceptions to cope with stressors (including co-worker relationships) and enhance performance.

In a safe, supportive environment, employees' negative feelings toward the organization can be reduced and work motivation can be increased (Latham & Steel, 1983). Yoon and Lim (1999) concluded that organizational support heightens employees' organizational effectiveness. When a co-worker or supervisor gives an employee positive attention, the person's feeling of well-being increases. That might be

because both co-worker and supervisor support contribute to organizational support at least in both the USA and Belgium (Yoon & Lim). Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, and Rhoades (2002) found that co-worker and supervisor support validate organizational support because employees who feel supported are more willing to offer the organization their own support by aligning their own goals with company's goals (Yoon & Lim, 1999). In other words, employees are motivated to achieve organizational goals because of organizational support. In the present study, the focus is on organizational support, which is operationalized in terms of both technical and social support. Technical support provides the tools and training necessary to do the job, whereas, social support, as attained via a supervisor or co-worker, implies the investment of trust in one to make decisions, which may lead one to feel that organizational goals are important.

In a study by Lowe et al. (1997), supervisor and co-worker support were found to vary due to the cultural environment (i.e., UK, Japan, and USA) and the perceived value of the support. For example, workers in Japan valued team-work and team-leader roles more than workers in the USA or UK. This might have led to the higher scores Japanese workers received on performance than those from the USA. This shows that the perception of value placed on teamwork or the supervisor differs and these results relate to performance differently across nations.

Beehr and Glazer (2001) suggested that whereas US based literature finds that the supervisor is usually in the best position (in relation to family and friends) to reduce employee's workplace stress, in some cultures there is an opposite effect. Some

employees may perceive supervisor emotional or instrumental support negatively because it is interpreted as undermining employees' abilities to complete a task. This interpretation might be applicable to conservative cultures. However, when it comes to overall organizational support, it is perceived more favorably in conservative cultures (e.g., Argentina, Brazil, China, Czech Republic, India, Mexico, Poland, Romania, Singapore, Turkey) than autonomous cultures (e.g., Australia, Canada, France, Italy, Japan, Netherlands, Spain, UK, and USA). Conservative cultures probably value group work and support in accomplishing tasks in a socially organized manner, as opposed to autonomous cultures that focus on the individual.

Cross-cultural implications of organizational support. The cross-cultural study of organizational support is especially important due to the globalization of firms and the increase in cross-cultural resources and contacts. A cross-cultural perspective of organizational support is important in the planning and implementation of various management practices (Beehr & Glazer, 2001) in multi-national and international firms. According to Beehr and Glazer, cultures that value conservatism probably create an environment where organizational support would be accepted and normal practice.

Yoon and Lim (1999) conducted a study on perceived organizational support among 1,882 hospital employees in Korea. Their study showed that employees that received more supervisor and co-worker support felt more organizational support. They also stated that cultural contexts in the Korean organizations might have related to perceptions of employees' organizational support. The USA's emphasis on economic value versus Korea's endorsement of supportive social relations (Yoon & Lim, 1999)

might have implied that more supportive organizations would flourish in Korea than in the USA.

Grant-Vallone and Ensher (2001) found that when an organization provided a supportive environment, employees reported lower levels of depression, anxiety, and work-personal life conflict in Australia, China, Japan, the Netherlands, the USA, and the UK. Dubinski et al. (1997) surveyed USA and Japanese electronics industry field salespersons and found that people in both nations believed feelings of security could be increased when employees received organizational support because they viewed their work situations as less threatening with organizational support. It can be inferred from these studies that organizational support makes it easier for people to reach their goals since they have more mental resources available to put toward goal achievement rather than worrying about issues such as employment (Eisenberger et al., 2001). If an employee receives or perceives support, effort can stay focused on the job at hand (Eisenberger et al., 2001).

Likewise, data collected on 324 expatriates from seven American multi-national firms and other associations in Australia, China, Japan, Netherlands, US, and the UK showed that lack of POS interfered with the completion of work assignments (Shaffer, Harrison, Gilley, & Luk, 2001). Schaffer et al.'s study suggested that a lack of organizational support would likely hinder the achievement of work-related goals. Similarly, Eisenberger et al. (2001) demonstrated that if the organization did not provide employees with the needed support and resources to fulfill the demands of the job,

employees would experience withdrawal from their work assignments, which would likely result in decreased performance.

Work Motivation

Motivation defined. This section examines what drives people at work to gain skills and improve performance. Work motivation is conceptually defined as the amount of stimulation, interest, challenge, or drive one has to get work completed and obtain what he or she wants from a job while simultaneously desiring an increase in competence and attainment of goals that hold value to the organization (e.g., Bandura & Cervantes, 1986; Erez, 1994; Erez & Earley, 1997; Harvey et al., 2000; Latham & Steele, 1983; McClelland, 1961). In the present study, motivation is operationally defined as rewards, the opportunity for growth, and a desire to increase effort. In other words, it is a type of social motivation. Motivation has been linked to organizational goals (Erez, 1994). When an employee feels good about a job because of an incentive toward goal achievement, he or she will strive to repeat goal achievement. Motivation is used to achieve personal and organizational objectives. Erez (1994) assessed that motivation influenced people's decision-making processes, behaviors, and performance.

Studies on work motivation and goal achievement. Erez (1994) found that when an employee received recognition from a company because he or she achieved an organizational goal, then the person felt greater self-worth, which fostered motivation. Pham and Taylor (1999), and Elliot and Harackiewicz (1996) found that the more motivated one was, the more likely one was to achieve goals.

According to Yelon's (1992) motivation-awareness-skills-support model (M.A.S.S.), successful performance will be achieved if employees are motivated and receive mental and physical support from the organization. A sense of belonging through involvement is closely tied to organizational support. With motivation and organizational support, a person is driven to give and receive support. As a result of organizational support, motivation is likely to be high, and performance is likely to improve by applying the knowledge and skills learned through training and support provided by an organization to its employees. Yelon's model reflected the idea that organizational support might lead to motivation, which would mediate the relationship between organizational support and goal achievement (see Figure 2).

Cross-cultural implications of motivation and goal achievement. Theories of motivation have primarily been developed in the USA (e.g., Bandura & Cervone, 1986; Herzberg, 1966; Latham & Steel, 1983; Locke, 2001; McClelland, 1961), which has been characterized as an individualistic culture (Hofstede, 1984; Silverthorne, 1992). This individualistic perspective conflicts with ways of thinking in other cultures. For example, expectancy and equity theories do not apply in collectivistic cultures the way they do in the USA (Kabanoff, 1997; Leung, 1997; Silverthorne, 1992). In terms of management applications, managers should not assume that domestic American business practices would motivate employees of non-American backgrounds (Silverthorne, 1992). Therefore, companies should use human resource management practices that are congruent with a nation's cultural values (Dunning & Bansal, 1997; Gomez-Mejia & Palich, 1997; Harvey et al., 2000; Li et al., 2001).

Motivation theories of Western cultures do not automatically apply to other cultures. Not only do people of different cultures have different value priorities (Harvey et al. 2000; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001; Schwartz, 1990; 1994a) but also do countries (Hofstede, 1984; Schwartz, 1994b; 1999). Culture values are the values endorsed by a society that motivate people. Motivation is a concept that holds different meanings across cultures (Hofstede, 1984). In individualistic or autonomy-based cultures, motivation is more likely to drive personal goals. In contrast, cultures high on collectivism or conservatism will be motivated to complete group work.

Yamauchi et al. (1994) compared work motivation and attitudinal differences among 231 middle class adults in Japan and 324 middle class adults in Northern Ireland. Three work motivations were examined: achievement motivations, commitment to mastering hard tasks, and competitiveness motivation (i.e., the motivation to excel above others and to be the best in situations). The results showed that Japanese adults strived for mastery and achievement motivation, but Northern Ireland adults were more motivated by competitiveness than the Japanese. This is consistent with Schwartz (1994b) who found Japan to be fairly high on mastery and autonomy. Further evidence from Lincoln and Kalleberg (1985) supports the theory that motivation differs across cultures. Lincoln and Kalleberg found that Japanese workers were more likely to have management practices that exemplified group level goals than U.S. workers.

Harvey et al. (2000) stated that people of different nations have different motives that lead them to differing sets of goals. A questionnaire was administered to 117 Zimbabwean managers and 82 White British respondents. Harvey et al. showed that

people in Zimbabwe were motivated to achieve status, prestige, and position, whereas the British were motivated to achieve social approval and loyalty. The results of their study suggested that reported motivation relates to goal achievement differently across countries because peoples' desire for involvement will be weaker or stronger in some countries over others.

Goal-Achievement

Goal-achievement defined. The present section examines what goal achievement is and why it is expected to be an outcome of organizational support and motivation. Although most of the studies reviewed in this paper do not examine organizational support and motivation in relation to goal achievement, they do lend some theoretical reasoning for the present study in which perceived organizational support and motivation are expected to account for a large proportion of variance in goal achievement. In the present survey, goal achievement is operationalized in terms of identification with the organization's mission of performance, continuous improvement, and overall achievements. Goal achievement, or the ability to reach optimal performance levels, is determined by the perceptions of what is desired and effective (Lowe et al., 1997; Shwalb, Shwalb, Harnisch, Maehr, & Akanaba, 1992). Alie (1982) stated that goals are achieved by making systematic decisions that consider the organization's survival. Organizations survive through the cooperation or involvement of its people in the creation of organizational support. Organizations that focus on supporting employees and motivating them by use of company resources, such as training classes, reward ceremonies, equipment, team-building, and other programs will likely survive.

Steel (2001) found that a person's feelings were important in the achievement of goals because they can facilitate or disrupt goal achievement. In other words, employees need support and motivation to reach goals (Lee et al., 1991; Steel, 2001). Bandura and Cervone (1986), Butler (1995), and Brunstein (1993) found that organizational support aided in goal achievement. Other studies (e.g., Aarts et al., 1999; Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996; Harvey et al., 2000; Konrad, 2000; Latham & Steele, 1983; Silverthorne, 1992; Yelon, 1992) also found that motivation related to goal achievement. For example, Erez (1994) found that human resource management practices and motivation related to employee behavior in an organization. Moreover, the outcome of monetary rewards and appraisals on goal achievement was moderated by national culture (Erez, 1994). Li et al. (2001) further stated that Western cultures tended to have a vested interest in industrialization due to more available resources (e.g., equipment).

Support as a predictor of goal achievement. Actions that lead one to experience a positive outcome, such as organizational support, will guide the person's behaviors (Aarts et al., 1999), including the achievement of organizational goals. In a US study on 296 management students, Butler (1995) found that organizational support, such as information sharing, led to trust among associates during business negotiations, which in turn aided goal achievement. Goal achievement was measured by the number of times an individual pursued one's own interests instead of building trust and sharing information with one's opponents. Mutual trust can lead to further support and beneficial behaviors that increase goal achievement (Butler, 1995). Bandura and Cervone (1986) found that offering informational support on how to achieve a goal helped a person to gain a greater

sense of self-efficacy, or confidence in his or her abilities, which lead one to put forth more effort. The cycle of ability to effort continued to improve performance. Similarly, Brunstein (1993) found that support, or the belief that others close to one would understand the importance of the goal, was important to reaching a personal goal.

Organizational support is when an employee feels taken care of or appreciated by the allocation of organizational resources to employees and thus has a positive attitude toward the organization (Eisenberger et al, 2001; Grant-Vallone & Ensher, 2001; Lynch et al., 1999; Shore & Tetrick, 1991; Yoon & Lim, 1999). Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, and Sowa (1986) examined the role of reciprocation between perceived organizational support (POS) and workers' affective organizational commitment and job performance. The reciprocity norm seems to evolve from beneficial treatment gained from an organization, making employees feel as if they want to keep working and helping the company reach its goals. The survey items in Eisenberger et al.'s (1986) study included the company caring about the employees' well-being and valuing the employees' contributions.

Bandura and Cervone (1986), Brunstein (1993), Butler (1995), and Steel (2001) found that organizational support aided in goal achievement. Eisenberger et al. (2001) found that perceived organizational support (POS) was related to performance measures, including satisfying the requirements of the job, upholding responsibilities specified in the job description, and completing one's assignments. They also found that POS was related to organizational effectiveness. By extension, it is expected that POS will be associated with goal achievement. Acting in ways that will achieve an organization's

goals (Eisenberger et al., 2001) will drive fellow in-group members to reciprocate the beneficial treatment given by the company.

Motivation as a predictor of goal achievement. Pham and Taylor (1999) examined the achievement of goals through motivation. The participants were largely Asian American (44.6%) and Anglo-American (29.7%). Goal-directed behavior was defined by the intention of completing a goal. Motivation was the effort used toward reaching one's aspirations. Pham and Taylor explained the connection between motivation and goal achievement by linking thought and action; thought is linked to action as one strives to plan and act upon the necessary steps to reach a desired goal.

In Stephens, Janz, and Mahoney's (2000) study of 114 US adolescents, performance was differentiated from motivation in that motivation was related to exertion or effort and performance was described as an outcome or ability. Another study that distinguished motivation from goal achievement was by Elliot and Harackiewicz (1996). They measured goal and motivational orientations among 84 US students. The findings demonstrated that involvement mediated the relationship between motivation and performance. Euro-Americans with high-perceived ability tended to put forth more effort than those with low perceived ability. The more motivated one was the more involved one was in achieving goals (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996).

Cross-cultural studies of support and motivation as predictors of goal achievement. Cross-cultural literature on organizational support and motivation as related to goal achievement is scant. Based on the above literature review it is believed that culture will moderate the relationship between organizational support and motivation

on goal achievement. The cultural difference between Eastern culture's interdependent values and Western culture's independent values might also foster different perceptions of organizational support and motivation in the achievement of goals (Hofstede, 1984; Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Schwartz, 1990; 1992). Li et al. (2001) conducted a study to examine the types of resources that lead to variations in work performance between East Asian and Western culture. They stated that Western cultures have a set of resources (e.g., equipment) that are unique in comparison to Eastern cultural resources.

In a similar vein, autonomous cultures tend to focus on instrumental rather than emotional support (Beehr & Glazer, 2001). For example, Western cultures invest more in advanced technology and spend more on equipment to support employees and performance than Eastern cultures that are involved in the textile industry and allocate resources to intensive labor (Li et al., 2001). Because the resources available make a competitive tool in business ventures, predicting company performance, it is conjectured that perceived organizational support in autonomous cultures will be greater in relation to conservative cultures, and the relationship between organizational support and goal achievement will be stronger in autonomous cultures than conservative cultures.

The ways in which goals are achieved are likely dependent upon the way organizations integrate organizational support and motivation into the workplace. It is conjectured here that this is further influenced by the dominant national culture. Research (Dunning & Bansal, 1997; Li et al., 2001; Porter, 1947) has even shown that societal culture in which a firm operates relates to business relations and performance with firms from other countries. For instance, a firm in an Eastern conservative culture,

such as China, emphasizes intensive labor operations through teamwork, whereas, a firm in a Western, autonomous culture, such as the USA, is probably geared more toward production (Li et al., 2001). Li et al. found that through teamwork more resources become available to perform other tasks outside of production. These peripheral tasks might include creating an environment that is conducive to achieving company goals, motivation, and support among co-workers and partnering agencies.

Beehr and Glazer (2001) purport that a cross-cultural perspective can help one to understand how culture values influence the perception of support. People in conservative cultures may perceive that they belong to the company because identification with an organization and co-workers may lead to a group-orientation. The present study will examine perceived organizational support along with motivation in cultures that are depicted as autonomous versus conservative, and hierarchy and mastery versus egalitarianism and harmony.

Theoretical Model Summary

The present review has shown that an organization's resources in terms of people and technology (i.e., organizational support) and strategies might relate to employees' motivation (Latham & Steele, 1983; Yelon, 1992; Yoon & Lim, 1999). Organizational support and motivation likely influence employees' behaviors toward achievement of organizational objectives (Li et al., 2001; Yelon, 1992).

Cultures that are less urbanized have less social mobility and economic development (Hofstede, 1984). This leads to interdependent and extended family structures (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). These interdependent structures create a view of

oneself as connected to the social context and less differentiated from others.

Interdependent oriented people are motivated by finding a way to fit in with other similar people that fulfill interpersonal relationships. Survival is less based on individual initiative and more on collectivistic action and thinking. The interdependent thought generates an organizationally supportive environment for all, where people want to belong to the organization and every person reciprocates to achieve a long-term relationship as an employee with the company (Eisenberger et al., 2001).

Employees expect organizations to take care of them and to protect them (Eisenberger et al., 2001). This support can motivate people to achieve goals. In other words, motivation would mediate the relationship between organizational support and goal achievement. However, in autonomous cultures the organizational support-goal achievement relationship will be more positive than in conservative cultures, because the organizational support given is geared toward the individual and not the group. People in autonomy cultures are motivated when given individualized support (Beehr & Glazer, 2001). These autonomous values will create a stronger more positive relationship between both organizational support and motivation with goal achievement because they emphasize reaching goals with individualized support from others.

Because culture molds the interpretation of the workplace through shared values and norms (Erez, 1994), our actions probably need to compliment the national culture in which a company is located. If employees feel their organization cares about employees' well-being, they will be more willing to put forth effort towards performance (Yoon & Lim, 1999). This may be especially prevalent in less autonomous cultures. Because

support and motivational factors may be interpreted through different cultural filters, organizations' management need to pay attention to how workplace practices are perceived in order to accommodate different peoples' needs correctly (Silverthorne, 1992). Therefore, results of this study of the relationship between organizational support, motivation, and goal achievement in different nations might help practitioners to understand how to manage international employees within a company. It may also have implications for organizational change efforts.

The extent to which organizational support and motivation relate to goal achievement might differ across cultural boundaries. Autonomous cultural values emphasize goal achievement through the independent pursuit of knowledge and creativity. Managers in autonomous cultures are more likely to pursue modern management strategies to try and be up-to-date and influential in the employee-organization practices (House et al., 1997). The strategies (e.g., providing organizational support and motivation) might help to ease pressures of job insecurity and short-term employee-organization relationships that develop in affectively autonomous cultures. Therefore, it is possible that people in autonomous cultures might attempt to obtain goals as a result of supportive and motivating mechanisms.

Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: Organizational support and motivation will positively correlate with goal achievement in each culture.

Hypothesis 2a: Employees in autonomous cultures will report higher levels of motivation, perceive higher levels of organizational support, and achieve more organizational goals than employees in conservative cultures.

Hypothesis 2b: Employees in hierarchy/mastery cultures will report greater levels of motivation, perceive higher levels of organizational support, and report achieving more organizational goals than employees in egalitarian/harmony cultures.

Hypothesis 3: Organizational support tends to motivate employees to reciprocate the received support by attaining organizational objectives (Lynch, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 1999; Yoon & Lim, 1999; Shore & Tetrick, 1991). Therefore, motivation will mediate the relationship between organizational support and goal achievement.

Hypothesis 4: Culture, as characterized by autonomous versus conservative values, and hierarchy-mastery versus egalitarianism-harmony values, will moderate the relationship between both organizational support and motivation with goal achievement, such that the relationship between organizational support and goal achievement, as well as motivation and goal achievement will be more positive for people in hierarchy/mastery cultures and autonomous cultures than for people in egalitarian/harmony and conservative cultures.

Methods

Participants

Through an organization-wide survey of a multi-national steel company, data regarding the company's organizational culture were gathered from 15,833 (approximately 75% of all) employees. The respondents were classified into eight occupations. These occupations included production associates (47.9%), skilled/maintenance (15.7%), clerical/secretarial (4.1%), professional (11.5%), technical (4.3%), supervisory/operations coordinator (10.4%), managerial (3.8%), general manager or above (.7%). In addition, 8.9% of the respondents did not report their occupation. Table 1 depicts the percent of respondents in each occupation in each country and culture. Due to various laws in different countries, the acquisition of personal data, such as sex, age, and tenure, were not gathered.

Measures

For all items used in this study the response scale was the same, where 1 indicated *strongly agree* and 5 indicated *strongly disagree*. The sixth response choice was "I don't know," which was recoded as "missing." Scores were reverse coded so that 5 indicated "strongly agree" and 1 indicated "strongly disagree."

Perceived organizational support. Perceived organizational support was measured by the mean of participants' responses to eight items. Perceived organizational support was measured by asking participants to respond about the "adequacy of tools and equipment you need to do your job," "the training and development you have received to help you do an effective job", "teamwork between your department and

other groups you depend on,” and “the preparation you have received in continuous improvement methods and techniques (e.g., problem solving skills).” Furthermore, respondents rated the following items: “I am permitted to make the decisions that I feel are necessary in order to do one’s job effectively,” “where I work, management is willing to make reasonable investment to support continuous improvement,” and rated supervisors on “providing one with the support one needs to do a quality job” and “treating one with respect as an individual” are also used to capture organizational support. The four culture groups of autonomy, conservatism, hierarchy/mastery and egalitarianism/harmony had alpha coefficients ranging from .85 to .87.

Work motivation. The mean of four items assessed opportunities for skill improvement, compensation motives, teamwork were used to determined motivation. The four items were “I have a real opportunity to improve my skills in this company,” “the better my performance, the better my total compensation will be,” “I benefit when the company improves performance,” and “where I work, associates motivate each other to do a better job.” The four cultures of autonomy, conservatism, hierarchy/mastery and egalitarianism/harmony had alpha coefficients ranging from .76 to .80.

Goal achievement. Goal achievement was measured by the mean of participants’ responses to three items. Achievement was measured in terms of the organizational goals for profits, outperforming the competition, and a dedication to improvement. The survey items were “we will be the best-performing manufacturing company in the world as seen through the eyes of our customers and shareholders,” “we are dedicated to improving

continuously in things that matter,” and “all of our associates will be known and respected worldwide for their achievements.” The four cultures of autonomy, conservatism, hierarchy/mastery and egalitarianism/harmony had an alpha coefficient range of .78 to .82.

Procedure

A team of external consultants developed a set of survey items to assess the organizational culture of a multi-national steel firm. The survey was translated into the native language of the majority of employees where data were collected, but there's no evidence of back translations. A professional translation group did the translations, with the exception of Hindi. In India, where employees did not read English, professional interpreters verbally translated the survey. It appeared that among other variables, the survey examined the supportive resources provided by the firm, the motives behind work behavior, and the shared feeling of achieving the organization's goals.

The designation of the countries into four cultures was based on Schwartz's (1999) culture values. Based on his survey results, countries in the present study were organized along two dimensions, including autonomy versus conservatism and hierarchy/mastery versus egalitarianism/harmony. For the present study, a content analysis was utilized to determine possible item categories. Principal components factor analyses, using a Varimax rotation, were used to determine the validity of the measurements. The purpose was to determine whether the eight organizational support, four motivation, and three goal achievement items comprised three dimensions. The factor loadings that reached a criterion of .30 or greater were kept (Spector, 1992), with

one exception for item 12 in the egalitarian/harmony culture (see Table 2). Reliability and was computed on the purported constructs.

Results

Principal Components Factor Analyses (PCFA) were performed on the three study variables. Results presented in Table 2 show standardized factor loadings. A three-factor solution was extracted based on a Varimax rotation. Each factor had eigenvalues greater than 1.0. The PCFA loadings for POS across cultures ranged from .47 (in autonomous cultures) to .83 (in autonomous and hierarchy/mastery cultures). In the factor analysis of motivation, loadings ranged from .19 in egalitarian/harmony cultures to .85 in conservative and egalitarianism/harmony cultures. For goal achievement, the PCFA loadings ranged from .75 in autonomous cultures to .86 in egalitarian/harmony cultures.

Means, standard deviations, and correlations for cultures are presented in Table 3. Results support the first hypothesis. Organizational support, motivation, and goal achievement positively correlated with each other in each culture. Correlations between organizational support and motivation ranged from .61 in conservative cultures to .68 in autonomous cultures. Correlations between organizational support and goal achievement ranged from .38 in conservative cultures to .56 in autonomous cultures. Finally, the correlations between motivation and goal achievement ranged from .38 in conservative cultures to .56 in hierarchy/mastery cultures.

To test hypotheses 2a and 2b *t*-tests were performed on each of the three variables for each of the cultural dimensions (see Table 4). People in autonomous cultures reported significantly lower levels of motivation than people in conservative cultures ($M = 2.84$ versus $M = 3.31$, $t(15,363) = -28.33$, $p < .01$, respectively), and people in

autonomous cultures reported significantly lower levels of goal achievement than people in conservative cultures ($M = 3.50$ versus $M = 4.21$, $t(15,334) = -43.90$, $p < .01$, respectively). However, there was no significant difference between these two cultures on organizational support. People in hierarchy/mastery cultures reported significantly more organizational support than people in egalitarian/harmony cultures ($M = 3.34$ versus $M = 3.30$, $t(14,335) = 2.96$, $p < .01$, respectively). People in hierarchy/mastery cultures reported significantly less goal achievement than people in egalitarian/harmony cultures ($M = 3.60$ versus $M = 3.66$, $t(14268) = -3.14$, $p < .01$, respectively). Finally, no significant difference was found on motivation for these two cultures. Therefore, hypotheses 2a and 2b were mostly not supported.

Hypothesis 3 was supported as hierarchical regression analyses showed the relationship between organizational support and goal achievement was mediated by motivation in each culture (see Table 5). Baron and Kenny (1986) suggested a two-step process for mediated analyses. In the first step, the outcome variable (in this case, goal achievement) is regressed on the predictor variable (in this case, organizational support). Assuming that significant variance is accounted for by the predictor variable, then one can move on to the second step. In the second step, goal achievement is regressed first on the mediator, motivation, then on organizational support. If organizational support accounts for less or no variance in goal achievement when motivation is added to the regression equation, and a significant amount of variance in goal achievement is accounted for by motivation, then one can say that organizational support-goal achievement relationship was partially or fully mediated by motivation.

Organizational support was significantly related to goal achievement across all the cultures ($\beta = .56$ for Autonomy, $\beta = .38$ for Conservatism, $\beta = .53$ for Hierarchy/Mastery, and $\beta = .44$ for Egalitarianism/Harmony). Motivation was also significantly related to goal achievement in each culture ($\beta = .55$ for Autonomy, $\beta = .38$ for Conservatism, $\beta = .56$ for Hierarchy/Mastery, and $\beta = .48$ for Egalitarianism/Harmony). In each culture, the amount of variance accounted for in goal achievement by organizational support was reduced when motivation was entered into the equation (see Table 5). All the beta weights were significant. Thus, it appears that motivation is a mechanism by which organizational support is related to goal achievement (Baron & Kenny, 1986). However, motivation does not totally mediate the relationship between organizational support and goal achievement because organizational support still accounted for significant variance in goal achievement even when motivation was controlled for (Baron & Kenny, 1986). This was true across all the cultures.

Based on a hierarchical regression analyses, Hypothesis 4, that cultures would moderate the relationship between both organizational support and motivation with goal achievement, is supported (see Tables 6 and 7 and Figure 5 and 6). Three steps were taken to perform four moderated regression analyses (Baron & Kenny, 1986). First, the predictor variable, either motivation or organizational support, was entered. Second, culture, either autonomy versus conservatism or egalitarianism/harmony versus hierarchy/mastery were entered into the equation. Third, the interaction between the predictor variable entered in step 1 and the culture entered in step 2 was entered. The interaction between organizational support and autonomy vs. conservative dimension

(dummy coded as 0 and 1) yielded a significant 1% increase of variance in goal achievement above and beyond the variance accounted for by culture and organizational support independently. The nature of the interaction is depicted in Figure 5 and 6. Generally, for both autonomous and conservative cultures, goal achievement increased when organizational support increased. Although goal achievement was consistently higher in conservative cultures than autonomous cultures, the slope for the autonomous cultures was more positive than for the conservative cultures. Next, the interaction between organizational support and hierarchy/mastery versus egalitarianism/harmony culture (dummy coded as 0 and 1) yielded a significant, yet .00, increase of variance in goal achievement after each main effect variable was entered. The significance is probably due to the large sample size. Nonetheless, the interaction depicted in Figure 5 shows that while the slopes for both cultures are quite steep, there is a slight interaction, such that at low levels of organizational support goal achievement was lower for hierarchy/mastery cultures than egalitarian/harmony cultures, however at high levels of organizational support, goal achievement was higher for hierarchy/mastery cultures than egalitarian/harmony cultures.

The interaction between motivation and the autonomy/conservatism culture dimension yielded a significant 1% increase of variance in goal achievement after main effects were entered. Figure 6 shows the nature of this interaction to be similar to that of the relationship between organizational support and goal achievement. That is, the slope of the relationship between organizational support and goal achievement was more positive for the autonomous cultures than the conservative cultures. Finally, after

entering motivation and culture, the interaction between motivation and hierarchy/mastery vs. harmony/egalitarianism dimension yielded a significant 0.1% increase of variance in goal achievement above and beyond the motivation and culture main effects. Again, the nature of the interaction (depicted in Figure 6) showed that at low levels of motivation, goal achievement was lower for hierarchy/mastery cultures than egalitarian/harmony cultures, but at high levels of motivation, hierarchy/mastery cultures reported higher goal achievement than egalitarian/harmony cultures. Therefore, Hypothesis 4 was supported.

Summary of Results

Hypothesis 1, regarding positive correlations among organizational support, motivation, and goal achievement across cultures, was supported. Hypotheses 2a and 2b regarding the differences on the main study variables between the cultures were mostly not supported. Hypothesis 3, examining a mediated model, was supported, as motivation partially mediated the organizational support-goal achievement relationship. Finally, Hypothesis 4 was mostly supported, as it was found that the interaction between culture and organizational support or motivation on goal achievement was more positive in autonomous than conservative cultures, and more positive in hierarchy/mastery cultures than egalitarian/harmony cultures. However, for the latter culture dimension, the slopes for motivation and goal achievement, as well as for organizational support and goal achievement were quite similar.

Discussion

The present study examined the relationships among organizational support, motivation, and goal achievement. This study clarifies when culture moderates the relationships among organizational support and motivation with goal achievement. Culture categories were established based on research by Schwartz (1994a; 1999) and Hofstede (1984). After determining that the correlations among study variables were positive and significant in each culture, means of the study variables were compared between cultures.

People in autonomous and hierarchy/mastery cultures scored lower on goal achievement than people in conservative and egalitarian/harmony cultures, respectively. This may be due to the characterization of people in autonomous and hierarchy/mastery cultures as self-reliant and driven toward status and power for personal rather than organizational goals, as opposed to people in conservative and egalitarian/harmony cultures, who tend towards group-based efforts and the well-being of all (Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Schwartz, 1999). Furthermore, people in autonomous cultures reported less motivation than people in conservative cultures. This result is opposite of what was predicted in Hypothesis 2. A possible explanation might be due to response bias. It is possible that people in conservative cultures refrain from responding in disagreement to organization's efforts (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Also, the finding that goal achievement was higher in conservative cultures than autonomous cultures might indicate response bias, though it might also be related to a stronger identification with the achievement of the whole organization. Significant differences found between

hierarchy/mastery and egalitarianism/harmony cultures might be due to a large sample size. Although the *t*-tests indicated significant difference in mean scores for organizational support and goal achievement between these two cultures, the mean scores were quite similar and differences might be due to the large samples.

In each culture, regression analyses showed that motivation consistently accounted for more variance than organizational support in goal achievement. Motivation had a stronger impact on goal achievement than organizational support perhaps because organizational support is a type of motivator. Employers need to be aware of how to provide the employee with organizational support and motivation (Erez, 1994). Kaufman, Stamper, and Tesluk (2001) found that supportive organizations and motivated employees achieve goals. Human resources management needs to be conscientious of how organizational resources are used and to make sure that resources are utilized in a manner that supports employees to be motivated in achieving goals. In addition, companies and their employees will benefit simultaneously by a reciprocal relationship in which employers provide resources and motivational strategies within the organization and employees achieve organizational objectives (Steel, 2001).

Finally, the present study's results regarding culture as a moderator showed that culture, particularly the autonomy-conservative dimension, interacting with organizational support and with motivation, accounted for significant variance in goal achievement. Goal achievement was higher for people in conservative cultures than autonomous cultures, even as motivation or organizational support increased, as can be seen in the interaction effects depicted in Figures 5 and 6. However, the slope of the

relationship between either motivation or organizational support and goal achievement was more positive for people in autonomous cultures. This indicates that people in autonomous cultures might achieve an organization's goals if they are themselves given something in return (i.e., greater motivators and organizational support). In autonomous cultures, it is possible that people may not achieve goals of the organization until they are provided with the motivation and support they feel they need.

The concept of psychological contract or social exchange might be relevant here. Perhaps workers in autonomous cultures feel that they need to be given something from the organization in order to achieve organization's goals, whereas people in conservative cultures will achieve the organization's goals regardless of what they are given by the organization. The notion of the psychological contract further relates to the various forms of organizational commitment found in conservative cultures vs. autonomous cultures (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003).

In autonomous cultures, continuance commitment (i.e., need to stay because of few alternatives or threat to losing benefits with a move to another employer) and affective commitment (i.e., emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in an organization) are typical forms of commitment, whereas normative commitment (i.e., a sense of obligation to the employer) is a typical form of commitment in conservative cultures (Glazer, Daniel, & Short, in review). In this vein, it would not be surprising if people in conservative cultures do not think about a psychological contract in terms of social exchange with their employers in the same way as people in autonomous cultures. For people in conservative cultures, the mere association with an

organization is enough to drive them to reach organization's goals; they sense an obligation to achieve goals, because the organization was kind enough to employ them. Similarly, Janssens and Brett (1995) concluded, in their study of perceived safety among American, French, and Argentine blue-collar workers, that individuals from collectivist cultures felt equally responsible for production, and thus, it did not have as strong an influence on their perceptions of safety. In contrast, for people in individualistic societies, perceived safety was more strongly influenced by the extent to which production was a priority to the individual.

In conservative cultures, people are more likely to achieve organizational goals because they are socialized early in life to value goals for the greater good and thus do not need as much push from others in the social environment (Janssens & Brett, 1995; Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Therefore, with respect to the present study, it is believed that when one in an autonomous culture receives organizational support, it is likely to create a significant increase in goal achievement because the person might feel like the company is fulfilling its end of the psychological contract. Aselage and Eisenberger (2003), in a study done in the USA, found that perceived organizational support is a positive influence on employees' perceptions of the psychological contract.

Markus and Kitayama (1991) found that perceptions are tied to a society's culture. Culture is necessary to look at when studying behavior because it differentiates groups of people and the meanings they hold behind their actions (Beehr & Glazer, 2001). In American and Western European cultures, people generally hold an independent viewpoint of themselves and others (Markus & Kitayama, 1991).

Organizational support may be viewed as an additional benefit to the work environment in autonomous and hierarchy/mastery cultures and an expected norm of social behavior in cultures that endorse conservatism and egalitarianism/harmony.

Asian, African, Latin American, and Southern European cultures tend to view themselves as interdependent (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). It is plausible that although motivation significantly related to goal achievement regardless of culture, the strength at which motivation related to goal achievement differed, as seen in the present study's results. The relationship between motivation and goal achievement was more positive for people in autonomous cultures than conservative cultures, possibly because social motivation was a special circumstance for people in autonomous cultures, but a given (and thus not as noticeable to report) for people in conservative cultures (Markus and Kitayama, 1991). For this reason, social motivation was likely to be expected in conservative cultures, and more noticeable in autonomous cultures. By extension, Gano-Overway and Duda (1999) found that goal perspectives differed between national groups due to the different focuses in motivation. Therefore, performance may vary due to different motivational styles across cultures. Implementing the motivation strategies that work best in a given culture would lead to the strongest possible relationship with goal achievement.

Implications. The theoretical and practical implications for this study include enhancing management systems by focusing on cultural differences in organizational support, motivation, and goal achievement. The relationships between the variables of interest do not appear to have been explored before, and specifically not in the context of

culture. Cultural awareness can make organizational systems prepared to accommodate to the needs of multinational firms (Smith, Peterson, & Schwartz, 2002). International firms should take their business environments into account when determining how to influence employees to be involved in the achievement of organizational objectives (Li et al., 2001). Results suggest that given organizational support and motivation, change efforts might be more successful in autonomous cultures than conservative cultures, as with increasing support and motivation, goal achievement increases more sharply for people in autonomous cultures. Thus, when creating some opportunities for organizational change, it is likely to work best in autonomous cultures when there are strong felt motivators and organizational support.

Limitations. The unequal number of participants for a particular culture may be a limitation. However, there were more than 3,037 participants for the culture with the least number of respondents. Thus, although the number of respondents varied, the relationships between the variables were consistent across the culture and the number of participants should not make a difference. Unfortunately, the large sample size may skew results to appear significant, though the differences might not be meaningful at all. A second limitation of this study may be that it is difficult to assert whether reported differences are due to true differences or unreliable measurement (Schwartz & Sagiv, 1995). In addition, the current study may be affected by common method variance and common source variance. Common method variance is the result of significant variance in the outcome variable because the predictor variables were measured at the same time, using the same method for data collection, and same source of data. Furthermore, the

outcome variable is the perception of a behavior. The problem is that the perception stated might not match the actual behaviors enacted, though these perceptions are supposed to reflect the behaviors (Lindell & Whitney, 2001). Problems that one must be aware of, resulting in common method variance, are possibilities of erroneous correlations, acquiescence, response style, or social desirability (Lindell & Whitney, 2001).

Third, the limited demographics do not enable us to examine the population of the sample in detail. For example, answers may differ depending on sex, but this demographic was not collected in the present survey. Furthermore, some of the respondents may have a different background than the nation they live in and may not directly represent their culture. For example, a respondent reporting from China may actually be a native born and raised US citizen and hold values corresponding to US culture rather than Chinese culture. The likelihood of many such respondents is small, as according to the HR director of this company, there were very few expatriates or non-locals working in other countries.

Fourth, just like Hofstede's (1984) research was flawed because he assessed people in only one industry across cultures, this study is also limited to responses from one industry. However, unlike Hofstede's sample, which consisted of mostly educated managers, this sample consisted primarily of production workers. Moreover, whereas Hofstede sought to develop culture dimensions, the present study categorized countries into dimensions established by Schwartz (1999). Hypotheses about cultural differences were based primarily on Schwartz's (1999) findings that reflected an updated cultural

analysis of the most of the countries in the present study. Also, that Schwartz was able to replicate his findings in samples of teachers, students, and the general population across cultures yields greater confidence in the use of Schwartz's culture values as characteristics by which countries were categorized. Relatedly, one might question if the hypotheses developed for the present study might differ by industry. Hypotheses for this study were developed without taking the industry into consideration, because it was believed that culture takes precedence over industry, as Schwartz even found in his studies (1994b; 1999). Culture is likely to have a stronger influence over people's attitudes than the industry within which one works (Hofstede, 1984).

Fifth, although a third party (organization unrelated to headquarters or subsidiaries) was used in the language translation process, it is not certain if back translation was used. In fact, one country, India, utilized on-the-spot interpreters. This could limit the accuracy of the meaning of the items across cultures.

Lastly, the company in the US headquarters developed the survey. It was administered once across cultures, validated by HR managers who have little cross-cultural research experience, then modified and re-administered two years later (in 1999-the data used in the present study). For the present study, data were analyzed for both validity and reliability across cultures and both were found to be strong.

Future research. Future studies of this subject should include a priori hypotheses and measurements specifically geared toward answering the research questions. It would also be beneficial to determine how beneficial organizational support is perceived to be by people in various cultures. In other words, do people in some cultures prefer the

organization to provide support more than people in other cultures? There is some evidence to suggest that culture does matter in people's preferences for organizational support (Beehr & Glazer, 2001), which is somewhat similar to the present study's findings. Next, results show that in each culture, motivation mediates the relationship between organizational support and goal achievement. Researchers should examine the extent to which organizational support is an important factor in creating the motivation for goal achievement.

Social motivation is not generally considered a predictor of organizational support, but the high correlations between organizational support and motivation suggest that organizational support might predict motivation. Finally, it would be interesting to conduct a quasi-field experiment in which baseline data on goal achievement and organizational support are collected, followed by an intervention introduced to increase organizational support, followed by more data collection on perceived organizational support and goal achievement. Such a quasi-experiment could be conducted in one large multinational firm and the effects of culture on the relationship between organizational support and goal achievement would be compared.

Summary. In conclusion, the present study has extended cross-cultural research by relating three psychological processes across cultures. Companies can use this research to their advantage by focusing on motivation and support tactics (including issues related to communication styles) that would be most beneficial for the achievement of organizational goals. In the present study, motivation strategies and organizational support were geared to the individual and not to the group. The results indeed showed

that organizational support and motivation accounted for significant variance in goal achievement, and the linear relationship between these variables was more positive in autonomous than conservative cultures, even though the general level of goal achievement was higher in conservative than autonomous cultures.

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Table 1

Percent of Employees within a Given Occupational Category for each Culture

Country	Occupations						
	Plant Operatives			Staff Management			
	Production	Mainten- ance	Clerical	Tech- nical	Profes- sional	Supervisor	Mana- ger General Manager
Autonomous ($n = 10,864$)	53.9	15.1	4.1	5.0	12.6	4.4	4.2 0.8
Conservative ($n = 2,350$)	54.0	23.8	4.2	3.1	6.8	3.7	3.7 0.7
Hierarchy/Mastery ($n = 11,215$)	53.8	15.8	4.1	4.6	12.4	4.1	4.3 0.9
Egalitarian/Harmony ($n = 1,418$)	44.0	27.6	5.2	6.0	7.6	4.7	4.4 0.5

Table 2

Principal Components Factor Analysis and Total Variance (%) Accounted for by Items for each Construct in each Culture

Items	Cultures			
	AUT	CON	HI/MA	EG/HA
Organizational Support (Total Variance %)	22.85	27.52	23.59	30.85
1. The adequacy of tools & equipment you need to do your job.	.50	.68	.56	.68
2. The training and development you have received to help you do an effective job.	.49	.68	.54	.67
3. The preparation you have received in continuous improvement methods & techniques (problem solving skills).	.47	.61	.46	.71
4. I am permitted to make the decisions that I feel are necessary to do my job effectively.	.47	.65	.50	.69
5. Where I work, management is willing to make reasonable investment to support continuous improvement.	.59	.61	.62	.77
6. How would you rate your immediate manager on providing you with the support you need to do a quality job?	.54	.64	.57	.70
7. How would you rate your immediate manager on providing you with respect as an individual?	.83	.76	.83	.58

8. Teamwork between your department and other groups you depend upon	.83	.70	.82	.60
Motivation (Total Variance %)	22.54	15.69	20.84	12.89
9. I have a real opportunity to improve my skills in this company.	.61	.48	.58	.36
10. The better my performance, the better my total compensation will be.	.76	.83	.75	.85
11. I benefit when the company improves performance.	.76	.85	.76	.84
12. Where I work, associates motivate each other to do a better job.	.56	.41	.52	.19
Goal Achievement (Total Variance %)	15.99	14.94	17.22	17.61
13. We will be the best-performing manufacturing company in the work as seen through the eyes of our customers and shareholders.	.84	.81	.83	.86
14. We are dedicated to improving continuously in things that matter.	.78	.83	.77	.81
15. All of our associates will be known and respected worldwide for their achievements.	.75	.81	.76	.80

Table 3

Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Reliability Coefficients of Organizational Support, Motivation, and Goal Achievement in each Culture

Variables	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	1	2	3
Autonomous Culture (<u>n</u> = 11,837)					
(Australia, Canada, France, Italy, Japan, Netherlands, Spain, UK, USA)					
1 Organizational Support	3.33	.79	.87		
2 Motivation	2.84	.87	.68**	.79	
3 Goal Achievement	3.15	.87	.56**	.55**	.81
Conservative Culture (<u>n</u> = 3,580)					
(Argentina, Brazil, China, Czech Republic, India, Mexico, Poland, Romania, Singapore, Turkey)					
1 Organizational Support	3.35	.76	.85		
2 Motivation	3.32	.89	.61**	.76	
3 Goal Achievement	4.21	.77	.38**	.38**	.78
Hierarchy/Mastery Culture (<u>n</u> = 11,300)					
(Canada, China, India, Japan, Poland, Singapore, South Africa, USA)					
1 Organizational Support	3.34	.79	.87		
2 Motivation	2.91	.90	.66**	.80	
3 Goal Achievement	3.60	.90	.53**	.56**	.82

Egalitarian/Harmony ($n = 3,037$)

(Argentina, Australia, Czech Republic, France, Italy, Netherlands, Poland, Spain, Turkey,
UK)

1 Organizational Support	3.30	.75	.86		
2 Motivation	2.95	.88	.67**	.79	
3 Goal Achievement	3.60	.80	.47**	.47**	.83

Note. Alpha Reliabilities are bolded on diagonal.

****** $p < .01$.

Table 4

T-test for Cultures on Organizational support, Motivation, and Goal Achievement

Culture					
Variables	Autonomous		Conservative		<i>t</i>
	(n=11,387)		(n= 3,580)		
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
1.Organizational Support	3.33	.79	3.35	.77	-1.45
2. Motivation	2.84	.87	3.31	.89	-28.33
3. Goal Achievement	3.50	.87	4.21	.76	-43.90
	Hierarchy/ Mastery		Egalitarianism/Harmony		
	(n=11,300)		(n=3,037)		
1.Organizational Support	3.34	.80	3.30	.74	2.96
2. Motivation	2.91	.91	2.94	.83	-1.69
3. Goal Achievement	3.60	.90	3.66	.84	-3.14

** $p < .01$.* $p < .05$.

Table 5

*Motivation as a Mediator of Organizational Support-Goal Achievement Relationship
Across Cultures*

	Autonomy		Conservatism		Hierarchy/ Mastery		Egalitarianism/ Harmony	
	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2
Regression 1								
Organizational Support	.56	.31**	.38	.14**	.53	.28**	.44	.22**
Regression 2								
Model 1								
Motivation	.55	.30**	.38	.14**	.56	.32**	.48	.23**
Model 2								
Motivation	.31		.23		.38		.28	.31
Organizational Support	.35	.06**	.24	.04**	.28	.04**	.29	.05**

** $p < .01$

Table 6

Moderated Regression Analysis of the Interaction between Organizational Support and Culture on Goal Achievement

Variables	β	ΔR^2
Autonomous vs. Conservative Cultures		
Step 1: OS (a)	.54**	.25**
Step 2: Autonomy vs. Conservatism (b)	.70**	.11**
Step 3: a x b	-.39**	.01**
Mastery/Hierarchy vs. Egalitarianism/Harmony		
Step 1: OS (a)	.53**	.26**
Step 2: Egalitarianism/Harmony vs. Hierarchy/Mastery (b)	.13**	.00**
Step 3: a x b	-.10**	.00**

** $p < .01$.

Table 7

*Moderated Regression Analysis of the Interaction between Motivation and Culture**Values on Goal Achievement*

Variables	β	ΔR^2
Autonomous vs. Conservative Cultures		
Step 1: MOT (a)	.55**	.30**
Step 2: Autonomy vs. Conservatism (b)	.57**	.05**
Step 3: a x b	-.37**	.01**
Mastery/Hierarchy vs. Egalitarianism/Harmony		
Step 1: MOT (a)	.56**	.30**
Step 2: Egalitarianism/ Harmony vs. Hierarchy/Mastery (b)	.13**	.00**
Step 3: a x b	-.11**	.001**

** $p < .01$.

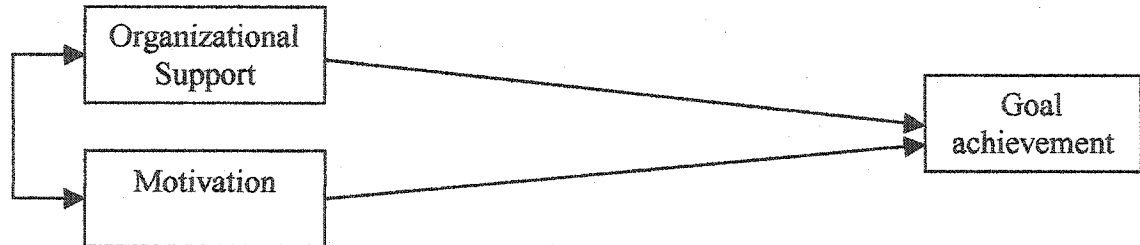


Figure 1. The relationship between organizational support and motivation with goal achievement.

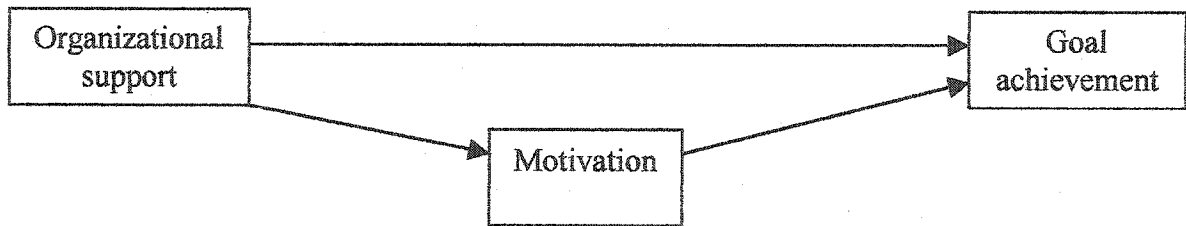


Figure 2. Motivation as a mediator of the relationship between organizational support and goal achievement.

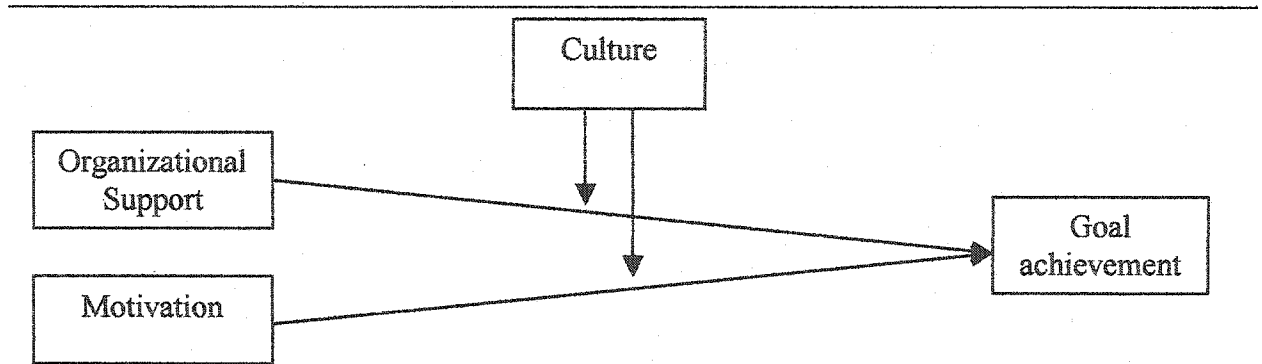


Figure 3. Culture as a moderator of the relationships between both organizational support and motivation with goal achievement.

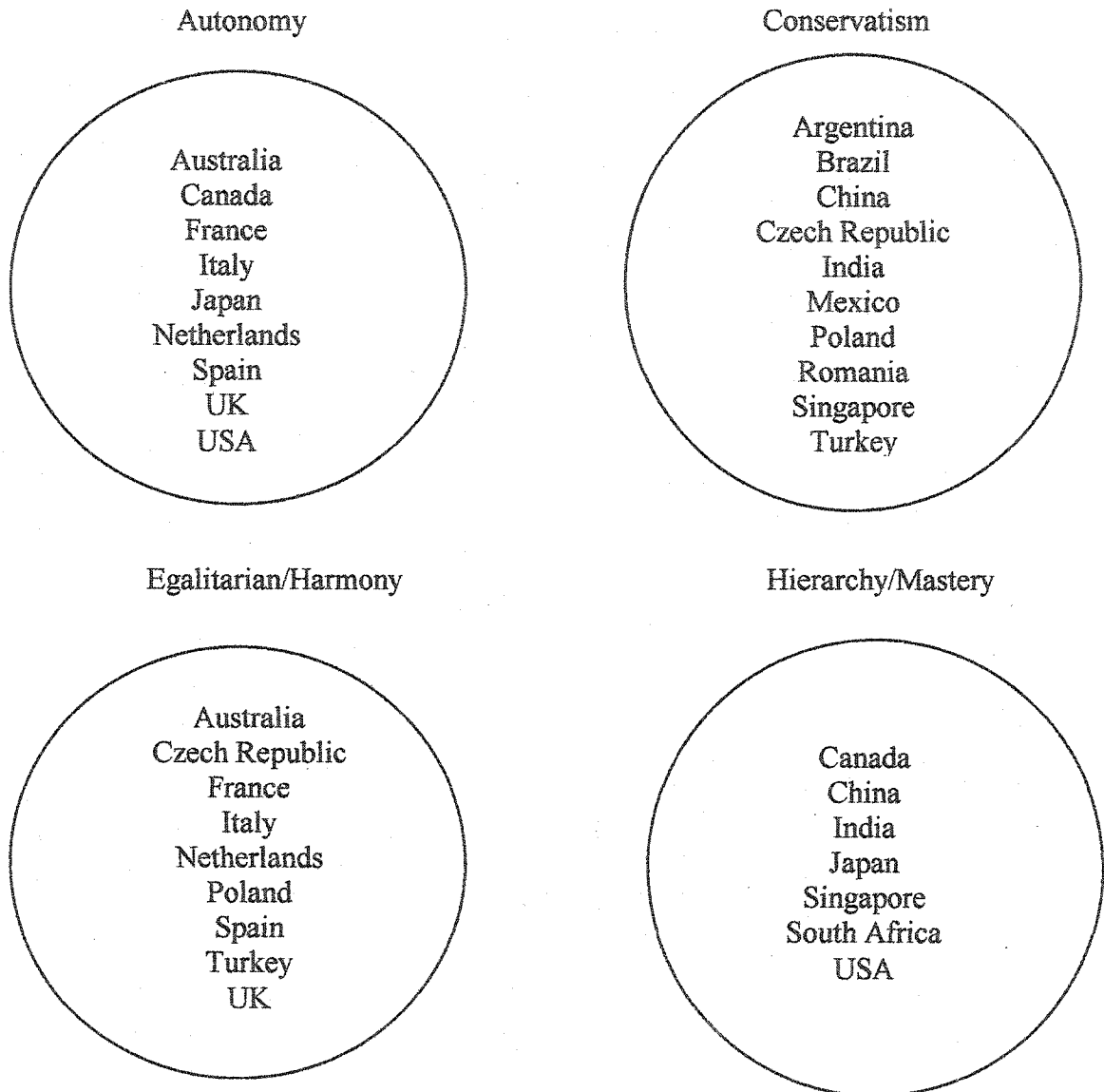


Figure 4. Cultures and their countries.

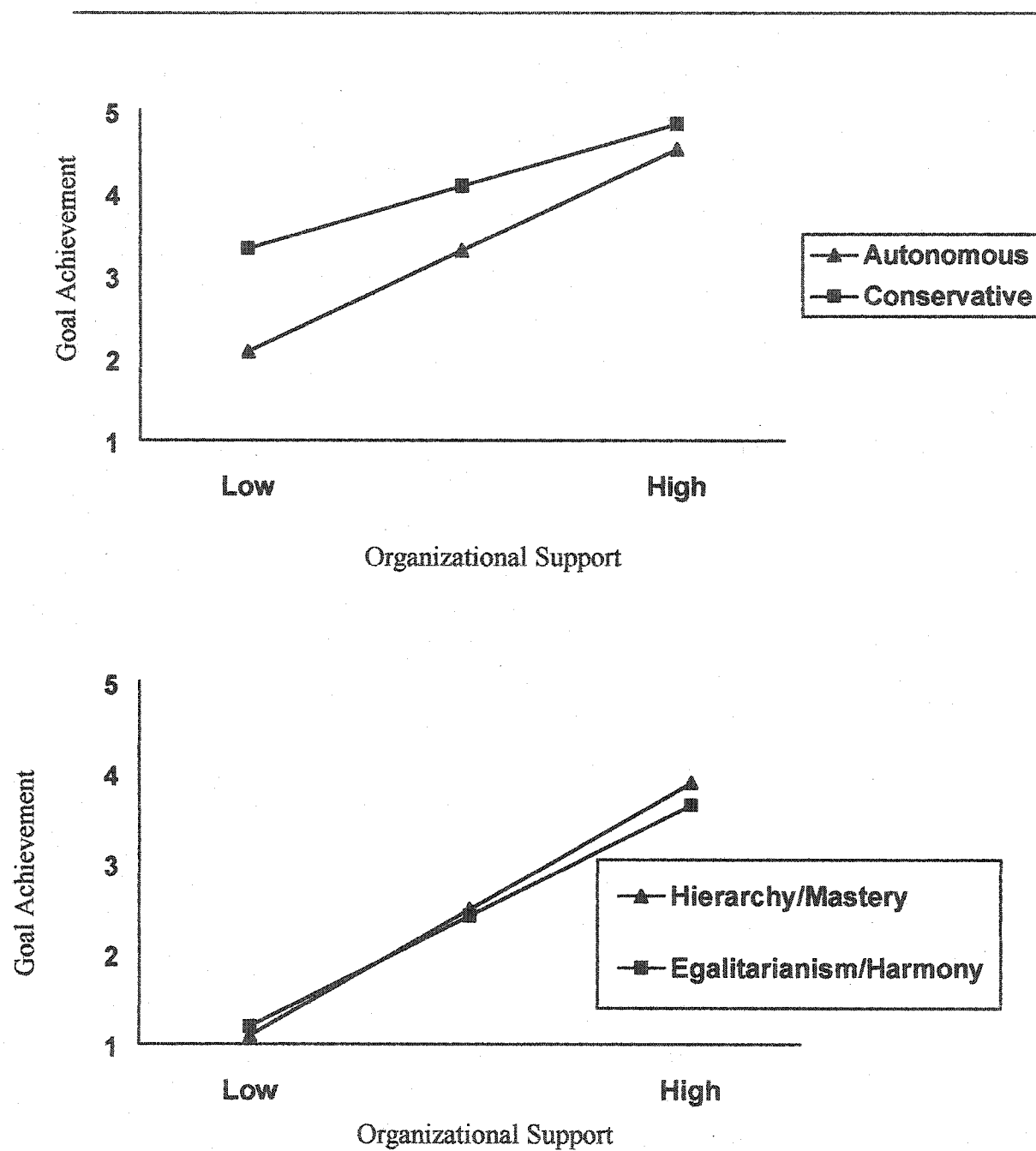


Figure 5. Goal achievement regressed onto the interaction of organizational support and culture.

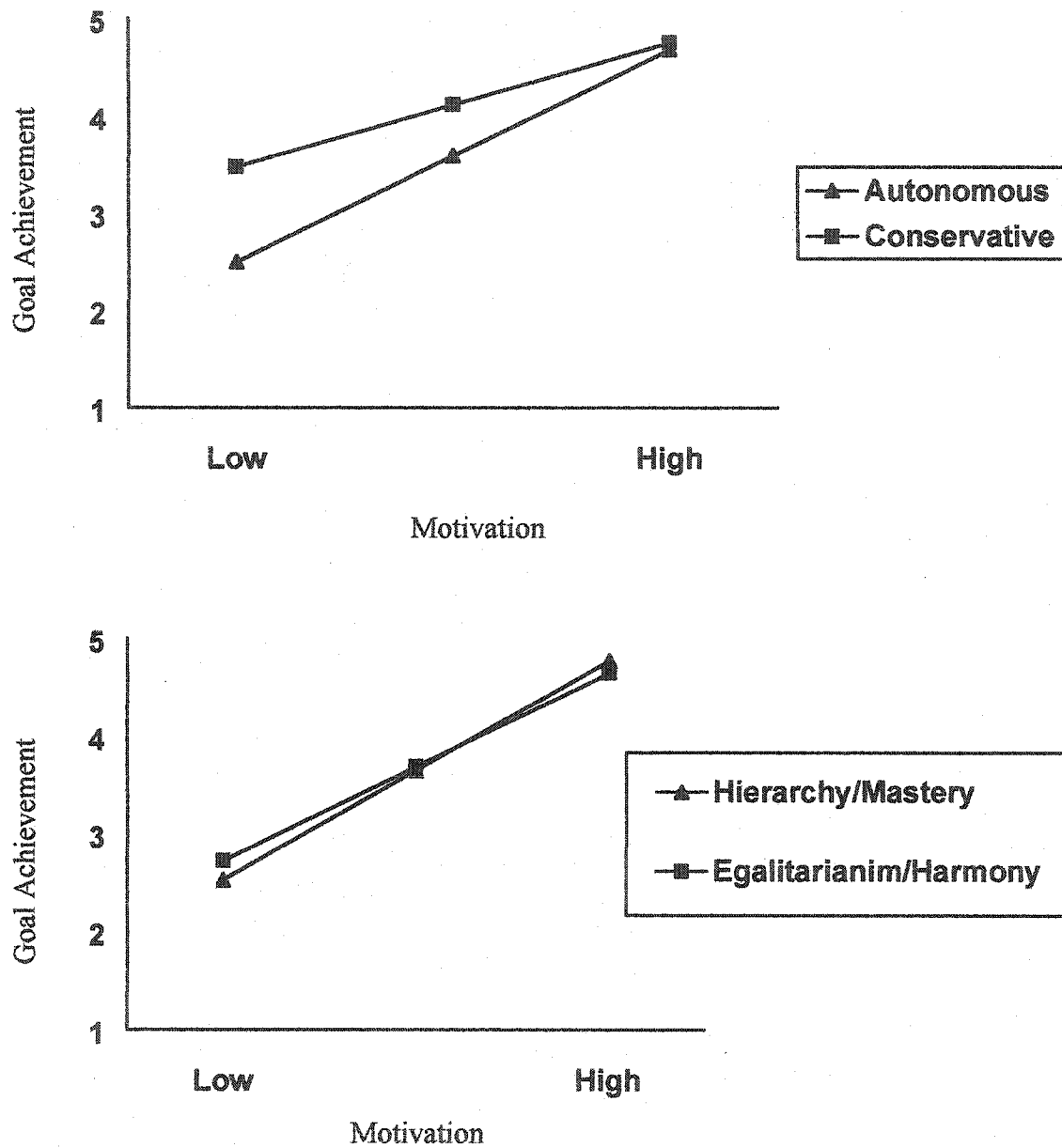


Figure 6. Goal Achievement regressed on the interaction of motivation and culture.